



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

Institutional restructuring in higher education within the Commonwealth of Independent States

N.V. Varghese

Institutional restructuring in higher education
within the Commonwealth of Independent States

Institutional restructuring in higher education within the Commonwealth of Independent States

N.V. Varghese



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

The views and opinions expressed in this book are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the views of UNESCO or the IIEP. The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout this review do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO or the IIEP concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

The publication costs of this study have been covered through a grant-in-aid offered by UNESCO and by voluntary contributions made by several Member States of UNESCO, the list of which will be found at the end of the volume.

This series of documents aims to share fresh results from IIEP's research programme with the educational planning community.

You are welcome to contact the authors directly with any comments:

nv.varghese@iiep.unesco.org

All the documents in this series can be downloaded at:

www.iiep.unesco.org/en/information-services/publications/search-iiep-publications.html

Ref.: iiep/web doc/2009.04 REV

Typesetting and printing: IIEP's printshop

International Institute for Educational Planning

7-9 rue Eugène Delacroix, 75116 Paris

info@iiep.unesco.org

www.iiep.unesco.org

© IIEP 2009

Table of contents

Abstract	6
1. Introduction: recent reforms in higher education	7
2. The context of reforms in higher education	8
3. The revival and expansion of higher education	10
4. Universities as corporate entities	11
5. Institutional restructuring for survival: the case of higher education in CIS countries	12
6. An overview of changes at selected universities	15
6.1 Yerevan State University, Armenia	15
6.2 Belarusian State University, Belarus	17
6.3 Kazakh National Technical University, Kazakhstan	20
6.4 Kyrgyz National University, Kyrgyzstan	20
6.5 Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia	21
7. Trends in introducing institutional restructuring	24
8. Conclusion	26
References	27

Abstract

Changes in the political landscape have promoted the role of the market in economic and social development. The market process in higher education has led to the introduction of various reforms, which has changed the way university activities are organized, how services are provided and how institutions are managed. This process of change is referred to as 'institutional restructuring'. This paper discusses the reform measures adopted in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) such as Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and the Russian Federation. The reforms initiated in CIS countries have many common elements, initiated during the transitional period: a revised curriculum and new courses to suit the requirements of a market economy, a credit-based assessment system, student evaluation systems, cost recovery measures and state- and individually-funded students. Institutional restructuring may be initiated for financial reasons, to improve the relevance of courses or to enhance quality. This paper argues that the restructuring process in CIS countries was prompted more by a will to improve the relevance of higher education. A closer look at reform measures indicates that they either attempted to prepare universities for a market economy, or to make the structure, content and evaluation procedures compatible with universities in the developed world. Since restructuring was a survival strategy, there was very little resistance to change within CIS countries.

This paper was presented at a policy forum held in Yerevan, Armenia in June 2007. It is based on five case studies carried out in CIS countries under the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) research project, *Institutional restructuring in higher education*.

1 Introduction: recent reforms in higher education

In recent decades, the higher education system has witnessed dramatic transformations in terms of its orientation and operation. The state's perceived changing role in development lies at the root of such changes. With political changes, the market ideology has become a dominant force that has influenced the direction and strategies of economic and social development. The state's investment priorities are now aligned more with economic rationality and less with social concerns and equity. This shift is reflected in the education system's decision-making process, notably in higher education. In the past, public investment and subsidies promoted access to higher education. However, currently, the individual capacity to buy and private incentives to invest influence higher education provisions.

State funding for higher education did not increase in line with a higher demand for education. In many cases, state funding for higher education declined. A growing social demand for higher education, coupled with a decline in state funding, led to 'cutback management' practices in many universities. Since the budgetary constraints became a regular and permanent feature, universities had to discover long-term sustainable solutions for their survival and growth. In other words, universities started looking more for sources of regular income flow rather than one-off contributions.

Countries introduced various reforms. These reforms have changed the way university activities are organized, how services are provided and the way institutions are managed. This process of change is referred to as 'institutional restructuring'. Based on the case studies of reforms in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), this book argues that these reforms were prompted by a survival instinct after the system collapsed and not by an earnest desire to improve the system.

Some of the reform measures adopted by various universities include (1) cost-saving measures, such as a freezing both staff salaries and recruitment; (2) cost-sharing measures, such as enhancing student fees and introducing student loans; (3) resource-mobilizing measures, including short courses or training programmes on a full cost-recovery basis, undertaking contract research and consultancies and a variety of other income-generating activities; (4) efficiency-enhancing measures, such as changing resource allocation policies and emphasizing accountability and evaluation procedures for performance assessment; and (5) quality-assurance measures, such as establishing accreditation agencies.

2 The context of reforms in higher education

Reform measures in higher education had different phases. Initially, after a period of state-sponsored expansion, which lasted until the end of the 1970s, the state could not provide the same level of support due to the economic crisis. This was a time when fewer resources were available for the public sector in general and for education in particular. University activities declined, and student enrolment stagnated or declined in many countries, including developed countries (Altbach, 1988). The notion of 'cutback management' became a catch phrase during this period and universities started to prioritize certain items of expenditure and areas of investment.

Secondly, there was strong criticism of public management of and the continuation of public support for education. The argument was that public resources should be increasingly employed in productive sectors and not in unproductive and social sectors such as education and health. This phase questioned the continuation of state support for education, especially higher education.

Thirdly, reducing subsidies for higher education formed part of the argument to divert resources from higher to lower levels of education. Discussions on alternative financing methods led to the popularization of cost-recovery measures in education (World Bank, 1986). Changes that were introduced during this phase were based strongly upon the economic logic of rate of returns to investment in education (Psacharopoulos, 1994). The deregulation policies followed during this period encouraged the permeation of market ideology into the provision of higher education.

Fourthly, the market ideology is increasingly becoming the operating principle to finance development and education. The decline of centrally-planned economic systems provided a political environment conducive to market-friendly reforms. This phase marked a progressive move towards homogenizing an ideological orientation towards development that was centred on market rationality. The deregulation process and the promoting of a market ideology facilitated a smooth transfer towards liberalizing and privatizing policies in all spheres of activity, including education.

Fifthly, there is the legitimization and generalization of the market processes leading to globalization. Trade and market transactions become the main promoters of global growth and prosperity. Education, especially higher education, becomes a tradable commodity under General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) (Knight, 2006; Varghese, 2006a).

Sixthly, there is the emergence of the private sector as a strong contender and alternative to the public sector in education. Private universities sprang up in many countries, prompting a rise in enrolment (Varghese, 2006b). Private institutions increased access to higher education and to certain subject areas in particular. Now there is competition between public and private institutions to attract fee-paying students.

Finally, there is the emergence of transnational or cross-border education providers, who compete with national higher education institutions, following the market process and GATS. In many countries, the private sector becomes a convenient entry point for cross-border providers in host countries. Cross-border student mobility has increased rapidly in the recent past (Varghese, 2007). With multiple providers – public, private and transnational – quality in provision, process and product became a serious concern, which led to a widespread recognition of quality assurance mechanisms and to the establishment of national accreditation agencies in many countries (Martin, 2005; Martin and Stella, 2007).

The reforms can be categorized into two major trends (1) the privatization of public institutions, and (2) the emergence of the private sector in higher education. Privatization implies applying private sector or market principles to operate and manage higher education institutions, while ownership remains within the public domain. The private sector, on the other hand, indicates the growth of the non-state sector in higher education. In most cases, this sector does not receive funding from the government. In any case, it does not rely on state funding for its growth and expansion.

Privatizing public institutions has taken different forms:

1. *Total or partial privatization*: Experiences from Asia (Sothorn and Yiibing, 1995) indicate that privatization can imply full pricing of services with no state funding or quasi-privatization with partial funding from the state. The more common case in African countries is quasi-privatization. Even in universities such as Uganda's Makerere University, which are very successful in mobilizing resources of their own, a major share of resources still continue to come from the exchequer.
2. *Privatization of services in public institutions*: Many public utility and support services and student support systems are contracted out to private agencies on a full-pricing basis. This also involves withdrawing students' food and board subsidies.
3. *Privatization as cost sharing*: This relates more to academic programmes. Cost sharing could take two forms – cost recovery and delayed payment. Cost recovery is affected mainly through levying fees from direct beneficiaries. The issue of delayed payment comes when students are supported through loan scholarship schemes, which they have to repay at a later stage. In the 1990s, levying fees became a very common feature in many countries. Many, including Ghana, Malawi and Nigeria embraced school loans. Some, such as Kenya and Uganda (Court, 1999; Kiamba, 2003) have introduced a system of private-sponsored students whereby private students pay high fees, while government-sponsored students pay lower fees. Introducing such reforms in public institutions is more difficult than initiating policy changes to enable the operation of private institutions.
4. *Public-financed privatization*: The voucher system is an example of promoting competition and private sectors through public funding. It permits parents to choose schools and universities for their children. Some states in the USA, such as Florida, have already legislated this. Other USA states are also expected to implement the voucher system. New Zealand embraced a voucher system on a large scale in the 1990s, but realized after a decade that this widened educational disparities between groups.
5. *Making universities corporate*: Some universities have established cost units, companies or corporations with operational autonomy. Making universities corporate in Malaysia allowed the country to borrow money, to acquire investment shares and to enter into business ventures in order to meet a major share of operating expenses. Many universities in Africa have established cost centres either at the departmental or university levels, to regulate income generated from various sources. For example, the University of Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania has created for-profit companies within the university. These units enjoy a high degree of operational autonomy, as in the case of private companies and corporations.
6. *Private management of public education*: In this case, funding for private institutions is provided by the public authority, but they are self-managed, including managing their funds. Edison School Incorporated, in the USA, is a good example of this trend. It is a leading company that operates the private management of public education institutions. In countries such as India, most colleges are private but receive their funds from public sources (Tilak, 1999). In this case, the management of public education is not seen as corporate.

3 The revival and expansion of higher education

These reforms have contributed to the continued expansion of the higher education system after a period of decline and stagnation in student enrolment. The social demand for higher education has been increasing and the number of higher education institutions in developed countries has grown. While in some developing countries the number of institutions still remains very small, enrolment has doubled. Four factors explain this expansion.

Firstly, higher education became important in the context of globalization, both in terms of research and development activities and in terms of employment prospects. With the expansion of a knowledge-based production, many economies are increasingly realizing the importance of research in development. Universities and research organizations influence the market competitiveness of individual economies within the context of globalization. The capacity for innovation is positively associated with the quality of a country's higher education. The quantity of educated people determines how far innovation is absorbed.

Secondly the labour market now requires different skills. The knowledge-driven production of goods and services increases the demand for a more educated manpower. The rising proportion of employees with higher levels of education in developed countries illustrates this. (World Bank, 2001) Interactions in knowledge societies need the capacity to analyse information independently. "Learning to learn, learning to transform information into new knowledge, and learning to translate new knowledge into applications become more important than memorizing specific information" (World Bank, 2002, p. 29). Employers look for the ability to adjust to changes, to analyze information and to work in teams and for communication skills.

Thirdly, contrary to common belief, empirical evidence in many countries shows that the expansion of higher education did not increase unemployment, nor did high levels of unemployment among university graduates reduce the social demand for higher education. Estimates for some of the leading economies, such as the USA (World Bank, 2002), indicate that the employment opportunity growth rate for those with tertiary-level education will be higher than for those with other levels of education. The private demand for higher education increases as prospective employment opportunities increase.

Fourthly, the non-state funding sector had incentives to enrol more students since the financial resources available to universities were relative to the number of students admitted. The privatization strategies removed financial constraints from the institutions to expand the system.

At present, state and private households are willing to support the expansion of higher education. The willingness of households is supported by their capacity to invest, whereas the willingness of the state, unlike before, is not always supported by adequate public funding. Public support manifests itself in terms of policy measures that provide autonomy and operational freedom to higher education institutions. However, state provision of an increasingly 'massified' system of formal education is still the dominant form of the organization of knowledge (Peters, 2003). Nonetheless, governments have followed a process of incremental and parallel privatization policies that have been designed to blur the boundaries between the public and the private sphere.

4 Universities as corporate entities

These reform measures have promoted the expansion of the system and changed the way university activities are organized and managed. Such a changed environment has allowed universities to reorganize how they operate. Universities have adopted a more managerial and entrepreneurial approach. Entrepreneurial universities (Clark, 1998), or academic capitalism (Slaughter and Leslie, 1999), have become new approaches to institutional development. As many authors have pointed out, an entrepreneurial response provides a formula for institutional development that places autonomy on a self-defined basis. This is done by diversifying sources of income, reducing governmental dependency, developing new departments and modes of training, rationalizing structural changes that provide a stronger response capability, creating central steering capacity and focusing on institutions. This forms the context for institutional restructuring in higher education.

Universities were viewed as public institutions that remained unchanged for centuries. In the 1990s, they experienced fast changes as a result of some of these reforms. The emerging image of a university became one of a corporate enterprise. However, the corporate style of functioning must give managers operational freedom to identify production targets and to mobilize resources and implement reforms. The initial step in the process of reform measures was to request greater autonomy, which involved transferring both decision-making power and responsibilities from the government to the institution or university.

These reforms have had a positive impact on various institutions. Even with stagnant or declining state funding, many universities have successfully accommodated a larger number of students and offered far more courses. The way in which university activities are both organized and managed has changed. Strategic planning and management are now common phrases at universities that have introduced reform measures. The consultative process of preparing and implementing a strategic plan has become customary.

New decision-making structures and processes have made universities more autonomous. Ministries of education became a funding partner, with a less significant role in the decision-making process. The decision-making process within universities has become more decentralized to the faculty and department levels. These changes are part of a process of institutional restructuring. Some experts believe that the restructuring process has changed universities' mission, whereas others feel that there was no alternative but to reform the system.

5 Institutional restructuring for survival: the case of higher education in CIS countries

This book looks at some of the institutional restructuring that has taken place in higher education institutions, focusing on the experience of CIS countries. It argues that the survival of the higher education system required a painful restructuring in these countries.

For the purposes of this study, institutional restructuring is defined as changes in both governance and institutional management. Governance involves decision-making structures and processes, whereas management implies implementing decisions. Taking and implementing decisions can entail creating new structures, specific criteria to allocate resources for various activities, the allotment of tasks to various groups and performance evaluation. Structure refers to offices, positions and formal roles within an organization. Criteria refers to norms that form the basis for the distribution of responsibilities and resources to all lower level units within an organization.

The process of institutional restructuring implies applying efficiency parameters and accountability measures in the private and corporate sectors of public institutions. Although improving managerial efficiency is central to institutional restructuring, it is not correct to associate the restructuring process with cost-saving reform measures. Needless to add, improving efficiency often reduces operational costs. It is neither the primary objective nor the sole purpose of institutional restructuring.

Although these changes were initially introduced on a small scale, they have cumulatively led to dramatic transformations in university operations. Institutions have become progressively more independent from the government and certain departments have become autonomous. Many universities have reorganized their activities in a cost-conscious corporate style, even though they remain within the public sector domain. This institutional restructuring process is the single most important change that has taken place in universities over the past decades. Despite once being considered as organizations that do not change, universities are now being transformed at a very fast rate.

These changes mark an important phase in the development of universities. Political control over universities has waned and universities' capacity to respond quickly to market signals has improved. They are gradually losing their reputation as loosely-attached organizations with weak regulations and control. They are now being perceived as tight with effective monitoring systems. These changes have no doubt transformed universities in general, but particularly in how they function. New positions have been introduced in the hierarchy, new operating rules have been formulated and decision-making and reform structures have been created. Although these changes were initially introduced to wave the threat of an economic crisis, new structures are now regular features of the university management system.

The emergence of CIS countries in the 1990s marks an important era in the political development of the region. The transition from state-funded and state-reliant development to market-oriented reforms has dramatically changed institutional arrangements governing people's economic and social life. After depending entirely on state funding, they could now generate non-state revenue to survive. Consequently, universities were made autonomous entities that were free to set up their own governing structures and to hire their own staff. Courses were reorganized to suit new social realities. All of these activities have affected the way universities and other higher education

institutions are governed and the way activities are organized. These changes have radically influenced the way universities are managed.

The process of institutional restructuring has changed how institutions function, affecting various university groups differently. Some experts believe that the restructuring process has changed universities' mission for the worst, whereas others feel there was no alternative but to reform the system. Instances of strong resistance, both to these changes and to the restructuring process, are common throughout CIS countries. A continuous process of bargaining and negotiating is significant to restructuring efforts. Certain universities have been more successful than others in implementing these changes. The present research focused on institutions that had taken restructuring initiatives.

This study's major objective was to scrutinize restructuring processes and their effects, both from a macro and an institutional point of view. The following institutions were selected for a detailed analysis: Yerevan State University, Belarusian State University, Kazakh National Technical University, Kyrgyz National University and Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia. The case studies focus both on the procedure of introducing the restructuring process and its effects. The case studies are based on an analysis of documents on how to introduce reforms, interviews with those authorized and responsible for initiating reforms, and interviews with staff that were directly affected by restructuring.

The education systems of the former Soviet Union have undergone considerable changes over the past few years – changes that parallel broader shifts in social, economic and political life. Educational development in the Soviet Union was directed and funded by the state.

Political changes in the 1990s and the subsequent collapse of the Soviet Union marked an end to centralized planning, state control and a total dependence on the state to fund higher education institutions. With the collapse of the Soviet Union, the unemployment rate in general, and that of scientists and engineers in particular, increased substantially. One reason for a rise in unemployment among science and technology personnel was a decline in activities in the defense sector. Thereafter, the demand for professionals in these categories declined drastically.

The 1990s were marked by extreme turbulence. In education, the decade was marked by dramatic reductions in government budget allocations, rapidly declining academic standards and for many republics, by increasing levels of administrative, institutional and academic corruption (Clark, 2007).

In response to the new situation, CIS countries embarked on a period of market orientation in development and market-friendly reforms in all spheres of activity, including education. In order to survive, the higher education system needed alternative sources of funding and forms of governance structures in order to facilitate mobilizing resources.

Some reform measures introduced in most of the CIS countries were:

1. *Re-prioritizing fund allocations to non-traditional courses.* Curricular reforms were implemented to adjust universities to new market-oriented development, which resulted in the introduction of new courses and training programmes. Courses in economics, business management, law and international languages became attractive.
2. *The introduction of cost-recovery and cost-sharing measures to finance universities.* Many university activities came to a standstill with a drastic decline in state funding. Liberalization policies led to a high rate of inflation in all of these former Eastern Bloc countries. Even when staff salaries remained the same in nominal terms, they declined sharply in real terms. The

salaries of professors in some of the most prestigious universities in Moscow and St. Petersburg did not exceed US\$2 a day (Shattock, 2004). There was a mass exodus of professors from public universities. To reverse such trends, the universities started levying fees from students, at times even at the expense of compromising the admissions criteria. Non-fee paying students who received state-funding were called 'budget students' (Kitaev, 2004).

3. *Income-generating activities initiated by institutions and by individuals.* This included the introduction of supplementary courses in several market-friendly subject areas including international languages, training programmes and services sales. Private tuition was a source of supplementary income for the survival of individual professors. However, one of the sources of income for many institutions was funds received from donor agencies.

6 An overview of changes at selected universities¹

6.1 Yerevan State University, Armenia

Introduction of student fees

Since 1992, higher education institutions in Armenia have been offering professional courses relying on tuition fees to recover the cost of education. In most cases, institutions set fees for different courses and the government allocates ‘free education places’ or decides on how many non-fee paying students to admit (Avetisyan, 2005) each year, depending on specialist demands and budgets. Institutions, in consultation with the Ministry of Education and Science, decide on the number of fee-paying students to admit based mainly on the institutional capacity – such as facilities and teaching staff. In order to get into professional educational institutions, students must pass a general entrance examination.

Revision of curriculum and reorganization of courses

The main professional education programmes implemented in Armenia are:

- 1) preliminary professional education (or preliminary vocational education): aimed at training students with basic education for jobs demanding primary professional qualifications;
- 2) middle-level professional vocational education: offered to those who have completed secondary education;
- 3) higher professional education;
- 4) postgraduate education.

The duration of education, depending on students’ basic level of education and their chosen profession, lasts from 1 year and 10 months to 4 years and 10 months. There are 130 professions taught in these institutions. The graduates are awarded degrees as junior specialists.

As part of re-adjusting the curriculum to new changes, reforms took place in middle-level professional education. A new list of professions was prepared. This list includes 257 professions grouped in 28 professional groups. Institutions were permitted to admit students in the fee-paying category. The Armenian Ministry of Education and Science approved the state standards for middle professional education courses, as well as the model charter for institutions.

These reforms have implications at the university level. For example, the State Engineering University of Armenia is engaged in the process of restructuring the professional educational system in the country. Restructuring activities focus on professional training or on re-qualifying graduates, providing curricular development, developing new textbooks and on designing instrumental techniques. It means that the institutional restructuring process within universities also includes modernizing the entire education system.

1. This part of the paper is based on research reports prepared by authors from the universities of Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and the Russian Federation. These studies are the following: Avetisyan (2005); Belarusian State University (2005); Herzen State Pedagogical University (2005); Iskakov (2005); Kyrgyz National University (2005).

Introduction of credit system

Introducing the Academic Credit System was meant to position universities in CIS countries in parallel with international standards. It involved long-term preparatory work within universities. Each university implemented the following key activities:

- 1) The course curricula is clearly identified for each faculty and department in terms of course content for Bachelor's and/or Master's degree courses.
- 2) A list of courses is developed within each university faculty and department. Meanwhile, each course in the list should correspond to a specified amount of academic credits bearing in mind the total contact hours, difficulty levels and the frequency of practical sessions and evaluation procedures. Each course should also have its prerequisites – list of courses required to pass in order to be registered.
- 3) The degree is awarded in terms of the total number of credits received. The minimum requirement for both Bachelor's and Master's degrees should be defined. There is a standard minimum pass rate.
- 4) Activities are organized to raise awareness of the academic credit system and to create incentives to motivate students. Students should be made aware of different ways to get a degree. They should be motivated by and interested in the most convenient and adequate set of courses, to then do the bare minimum to get a Bachelor's or a Master's degree.
- 5) A comprehensive mechanism is developed in order to create incentives for students to advance in their studies. This should allow students to transfer credits across universities.

Financial management

The financial management of universities has been restructured. Since 1992, the state has not been the sole or dominant source of finance for universities. In fact, state funding accounts for less than a quarter of Yerevan State University's total budget – 17.8 per cent of the general budget from the state and 5.8 per cent from the state for scientific activities (see *Table 6.1*). Fees are a major source of income for a university's survival. More than 60 per cent of income comes from fees (57.9 per cent from domestic source and 3.3 per cent from foreign students). A further 4.2 per cent comes from the university's income-generating commercial activities, while donations account for 8.6 per cent of the total budget and bank loans account for about 2.4 per cent.

Table 6.1 Sources of income at Yerevan State University (2005)

Sources	Income (%)
State budget (general)	17.8
State budget for scientific activities	5.8
Fee income from domestic students	57.9
Fee income from foreign students	3.3
Income-generating activities	4.2
Donations	8.6
Bank loans	2.4
Total	100.0

Source: Avetisyan (2005).

6.2 Belarusian State University, Belarus

After the collapse of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), the whole of Belarus' higher education system faced serious problems, largely due to drastic and sudden cutbacks in funding. Otherwise, prior to 1991, the Soviet Ministry of Education and the All-Union Institute of Scientific Research provided higher education establishments with all the necessary educational and methodological documentation, including from thematic plans, curricula and higher education diplomas. Creative links with universities and academic partners were broken; study opportunities in Moscow and with other leading higher education establishments were lost. The scope of scientific research and work narrowed. The Higher Certification Committee on Awarding with Scientific Degrees and Titles started functioning in Belarus. All these factors were central to restructuring the higher education system.

The creation of new faculties and the introduction of new departments and courses

In 1997, the Central Administrative Board for Educational and Scientific Methodological Work was created at Belarusian State University. With the help of experts, it organized academic programmes and curricula development. According to the charter, the university has the authority to revise and adopt these documents, but only in the humanities and in certain fields of the natural sciences, where Belarusian State University boasts a leading role among other higher education institutions in the country. The university has to co-ordinate its curricula and academic programmes with other educational institutions in various disciplinary fields.

Educational standards, which were developed separately for each field, were first introduced into the higher education system in 1998. They include general characteristics of students' disciplines; requirements for a student's level of education; admissions procedures; graduate proficiency skills requirements and professional competence; a focus on fundamental knowledge in a number of disciplines; the structure of the curriculum; minimum syllabus of each discipline; professional competence; and requirements for the basic academic programme. Thus, the educational standard is the basis for curricular development. The introduction of educational standards was prompted by the creation of non-public academic institutions that were more interested in commercial gains and not in the quality of education.

From 1991 to 2005, the number of disciplines increased from 19 to 56 and the number of specializations rose from 105 to 230, because of the need to increase national personnel and scientific branches. The Ministry of Education agrees on a list of disciplines and specializations for each study area, and the faculty dean agrees the specialization curriculum. With the support of the European Commission in the framework of Tempus² projects, two special areas were introduced: information and communications and economy law.

Change in admission policies and student intake

Since 2000, the enrolment of first-year students to higher education institutions has undergone considerable changes. The rector employs staff in faculty positions. University authorities decide on the number of students who can enrol for training annually at the state's expense. The special enrolment of students as teachers for rural schools and as journalists for regional national

2. Tempus (The Trans-European mobility scheme for university studies) supports the modernization of higher education and creates an area of co-operation in countries surrounding the EU. Established in 1990 after the fall of the Berlin Wall, the scheme now covers 27 countries in the Western Balkans, Eastern Europe and Central Asia, North Africa and the Middle East.

newspapers is counted separately and does not compete with other applicants. All students need to pass the entrance examinations in order to be admitted on a competitive basis.

Since 2001, the admissions procedure has included three entrance examinations – a preliminary examination in the discipline, followed by a second examination on language proficiency. The examination list depends on the discipline and corresponds to national rules issued each year by the Belarusian Ministry of Education. All applicants are tested either in Belarusian or Russian. The examinations are carried out by the Republican Institute of Knowledge Evaluation, of which the Ministry of Education is largely in charge. They also pass a third examination at the same institution of higher education. Applicants have the opportunity to take these examinations twice – first, having paid a fixed sum for the exam (equivalent to US\$10), and the second time, free-of-charge. In both cases, they are given certificates with grades, which are taken into consideration by the University Admission Commission. With regards this third exam, the University Admission Commission has the right to carry it out in any form regardless of exam results issued by the Republican Institute of Knowledge Evaluation. Academic institutions carry out their examinations in the form of tests which are later checked electronically. This is called a ‘centralized’ test.

The introduction of student fees

Fee-paying courses have been introduced at Belarusian State University at all levels of training within undergraduate and postgraduate courses and doctoral studies. Training at the first level of university education is not free. The total number of full-time first-year Belarusian State University students paying tuition fees for their education was 1,762 in 2004 and 1,946 in 2005. This is almost the same as the number of students enrolled who are funded by the government.

The enrolment of rural school-leavers receiving state support is carried out separately; they exercise their privileges in accordance with national regulations. The number of allotted positions depends on the number of applications sent by rural school pupils. Between 10 and 13 per cent of first-year students are from rural areas. In 2004, 100 students from remote areas of the country got into fee-paying courses (5.7 per cent from the general number of fee-paying students). In 2005, this number fell slightly to 94 students (4.8 per cent).

Tuition fees for Belarusian citizens differ from one faculty to another. They range from US\$850 per year for natural sciences to US\$1,500 per year for law and international affairs. Within the university structure’s total budget, extra budgetary deductions, which come largely from fee-paying courses, make up 25 per cent.

State-supported students receive scholarships. During the first stage of higher education (Bachelor’s degree), a scholarship is awarded once certain academic requirements are fulfilled. The amount depends on examination results. To get a scholarship, the average exam grade should be about 5.5 out of 10 for humanities and 5.0 for natural sciences. Students with low grades can apply for a social stipend for a limited period, which is paid out no more than twice to each student over the entire training period.

Each year the academic board of Belarusian State University has the right to recommend four students who have demonstrated academic excellence for the President of Belarus grant and appoint 37 state nominal grants. Like Belarusian students, foreign students are also entitled to a scholarship. Postgraduate and doctoral students are also entitled to substantial grants and scholarships from the state.

Changes in the university management, decision-making procedures and personnel recruitment

The structure of university management and decision-making procedures, are regulated by the charter, which is ratified by the president of the country. The charter states that a rector must be appointed and discharged by the president. The rector is in charge of managing and leading university activities. Their activities are under the authority of the Belarusian Ministry of Education.

The academic board is elected at meetings or at the Belarusian State University's board of labour collectives. It fulfills the functions of a collective management body. Academics and members of the National Academy of Sciences, vice-rectors, deans and directors of scientific research institutes can become members of the academic board. The rector can accept up to 10 per cent of them onto the academic board. Academic and research staff account for 75 per cent of the total number of members of the academic board. The student trade union, the council of monitors of academic groups, and other student organizations report to the academic board, which has a five-year mandate. It considers the most important issues in education and scientific activities, international co-operation, personnel policy and university development. It makes budgetary decisions and listens to an annual report on how these have been fulfilled.

The rector is the head of the academic board. At least a two-third majority decision by participants usually determines a vote. If the rector disagrees with this academic board, participants are asked to reconsider the vote and to vote by a two-third majority. Decisions by the academic board come into force once signed by the rector and must be fulfilled by the structural subdivisions, dependent organizations and members of the university collective.

Currently, academic boards at Belarusian State University's faculties, have the right to appoint one or several deans, subject to the rector's approval. Deans and deputy deans work full time. They are paid more for any extra teaching they do on the side.

The faculty academic board is the management body. It consists of a dean as the head of the board, deputy deans, heads of departments, departmental representatives and student organizations, which are elected at collective meetings. The decision-making process is the same as at the university academic board. The faculty academic board elects assistant professors, senior lecturers, tutors and assistants for a five-year term on a competitive basis, although the minimum term is one year. Heads of departments and professors are recommended by the faculty academic board to be elected on a competitive basis for posts. The university academic board then takes a vote to decide the outcome of these elections.

Belarusian State University employs some of the country's best academic and research staff. It has significantly influenced education and science in the country, having issued 396 higher doctorates and 1,529 PhDs. It boasts seven vice-rectors, who are responsible for faculties ranging from science, education, humanities, pedagogy, economics and the natural sciences. The rector appoints the posts and relieves vice-rectors of their positions by agreeing with the Belarusian Ministry of Education.

The university has 154 departments. Almost all heads of department have a doctoral degree. More than 100 of them hold an academic degree. All of them are aware of the problems in contemporary higher education. They have successfully managed to organize research and teaching work at the faculty level.

Income-generating activities: the creation of industrial enterprises

In 1997, Belarusian State University created a number of industrial enterprises in order to produce goods using the university's scientific developments. At present, 13 enterprises function in the framework of the industry, producing income-generating goods for the university.

6.3 Kazakh National Technical University, Kazakhstan

The university management introduced restructuring at Kazakh National Technical University during the last decade. This included several reforms, some of which are listed below.

Introduction of a credit system

The transition to a credit-based assessment system was an important reform measure introduced by the university. The academic credits were distributed as follows: one credit means one contact hour per week per term. The credit system has increased teachers' workloads, both in terms of teaching and assessment, unlike before when only oral examinations were available.

Introduction of student fees

Introducing student fees proved to be a complicated reform. How much to charge students depended on the average cost established by the government to train each student, the population's average income and how much training in costs high school. A committee consisting of institution directors, professors and rectors was created to take charge of fee and admissions issues. The rector heads the committee and the secretary is a professor with expertise in this area. To set tuition fees, the committee takes into account the labour market, the job market's demand for skills and roughly how much graduates are likely to earn depending on what they studied.

Changes in the recruitment of staff

University professors are recruited for a renewable three-year term on a competitive basis. Students and other academics evaluate their teaching and performance through questionnaire-based surveys, by assessing their contribution and publications. This helps the university decide whether or not to renew their contracts.

Creation of new management structures

In 2005, the following new structures were created: (1) the centre for quality management, (2) the registrar's office, and (3) the centre for distance training. This was necessary to increase quality student training, to make education more vocational and to usher the university into a process of student assessment.

6.4 Kyrgyz National University, Kyrgyzstan

Creation of a three-tiered degree structure

The transition to a market economy in Kyrgyzstan made it crucial to reassess outdated, rigid teaching methods and to prepare graduates for a new economy. It was necessary to find a more flexible approach. Kyrgyz National University introduced a multi-level structure, which already existed in countries with a free market economy. This included a Bachelor's and Master's degree to prepare experts for a new economy.

The transition to a three-tiered structure – undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate levels – was necessary for various reasons. Firstly, the university had become a market structure; it had

competitive relationships with other universities that had blossomed over the last decade of the twentieth century, and it mastered foreign flexible study programmes. The university had to revamp itself in order to keep students and to maintain qualified teaching staff. Secondly, there were more opportunities for students and academics to train and to study overseas. The rigid five-year system for preparation is a barrier to these opportunities. The introduction of a multi-levelled structure facilitated studies overseas.

Since 2000, partly due to restructuring at the university, experts have been taught both traditional and new subjects under the original structure. Not all faculties have employed the multi-level structure. The economic and humanitarian faculties have managed to adjust to restructuring.

Reorganization of courses

Courses were reorganized and several new institutes and centres emerged offering new courses on state and municipal management, marketing, chemical technology of inorganic substances and materials, information systems, international relations, customs business, standardization, meteorology, mathematical methods in economy, oriental studies, African studies, vocational training, judicial examination, management of an organization, practical psychology, and a Master's in business administration. For the first time in 15 years, the country had experts in industrial planning and the economy of trade, and commodity research on industrial goods, grocery goods, jurisprudence and meteorology.

The university set up new institutions and centres to facilitate developing quality programmes, including the following:

1. Institute of Integration for International Educational Programmes (five faculties);
2. Institute of Target Preparation for Experts (five departments);
3. Centre for Magistrates, Postgraduate Study and National Educational Programmes (three directions);
4. Centre for Economics and Management (two sectors);
5. Centre for Management and Business (six directions);
6. Centre for Information Systems and Technologies (two directions);
7. Centre for Linguistics and Intercultural Communication (five directions).

Introduction of tuition fees

Public funds could not cover most of the new courses, so universities had to rely on students' individual financial support. In 1991 they introduced tuition fees, which changed university finances, making them less reliant on restrictive state funding and more open to private donors. This gave them more of an incentive to accept fee-paying students. Gradually the number of fee-paying students rose, surpassing the number of state-funded students. This brought with it more money for universities. For example, in 1995, budget students accounted for nearly 70 per cent and fee-paying students accounted for 30 per cent of enrolment. In 2005, the share of budget students declined to 13 per cent while that of fee-paying students increased to nearly 87 per cent. The introduction of new courses probably caused this.

6.5 Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia

Introduction of new courses and programmes

In the early 1990s, university courses were very academic and not market-friendly. Some surveys indicated that nearly 20 per cent of graduates worked in areas related to what they studied at

university. Universities responded by offering new vocational job-oriented courses. They reviewed courses and introduced new faculties and departments including jurisprudence, economics and management. New courses such as social work, jurisprudence, mathematics and information technology (IT) management, religious studies, political sciences and sociology were also being offered.

The university was also keen to help students find employment after graduation. It launched the 'practica project' to increase graduates' practical training. In 2004, it launched another project – an institute for retraining and educating professionals to improve their skills and to help them get onto the job market. It also created a centre to help students look for work. Further resources include commercial education services and funding through research.

Strengthening ties between scientific research and education practices

In 2004 the country's leading universities and colleges signed more than 60 contracts to work with research institutes such as the Russian Academy of Science, the Russian Academy of Education and a number of other Russian scientific research institutions. One such collaborative project took place with the Russian Academy of Education in the framework of implementing 'the federal programme to develop education' and 'the federal experiment to reform the content of secondary education'. Over 50 secondary schools took part in the practical aspect of the study. The study's outcomes received a very positive evaluation.

Improving pedagogical methods

Restructuring has stimulated the development of innovative educational technologies, new teaching methods, scientific research and the ways experts assess technological and content reforms in pedagogic education. Results were gathered through the university's leading research and development project 'The integrative open system of ongoing pedagogical education', which enriched the theory and practice of pedagogical education with modern views on its essence and models of development.

The university has obtained and analysed the outcomes of an institution-wide learner-based teaching experiment, in line with the Bologna Process³. Due to restructuring processes, including user-friendly IT resources and circumstances, students' competences in these areas have improved over recent years. Long-distance education at the university was approached and analysed for the first time.

In 2004/2005 a range of educational technologies were developed and a number of educational projects were carried out. These had a prominent effect on the development of education activities both at Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia and in St. Petersburg. As a result, university students have become more actively involved in faculty, university and city social activities.

Managing the quality of education

Decree No. 126 of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation, which was adopted on 25 April 2005, added Herzen State Pedagogical University to the list of "leading higher education institutions and organizations pursuing the realization of the main goals of the development of the professional education system in the framework of the Bologna Declaration". The university has been working on the issue of quality of education and on developing compatible

3. The Bologna process aims to make academic degree standards and quality assurance more comparable and compatible throughout Europe.

quality evaluation methodologies and criteria. It has established a co-ordinating council on quality of education, which includes the Centre for Quality Audit. The centre is in charge of implementing the principles of quality management and disseminating the outcomes of its experience to other universities. The quality of university education is stable and remains at a high level, as demonstrated by the results of a state-administered graduate programme assessment method.

The university plays an active role in expert assessments of Russian secondary education. According to an agreement signed with the Federal Institute of Pedagogical Dimensions, Herzen State Pedagogical University's instructors designed standard-setting tools for state examinations in modern languages, biology, chemistry and mathematics.

Positioning Herzen State Pedagogical University in the Russian and international education context

Herzen State Pedagogical University's external co-operation with many institutions has contributed to the success of its restructuring processes. The university created a method to inform external target audiences about its activities. The Public Relations Centre regularly informs the media about various activities and events. This academic year alone, over 200 articles and other materials about the university have been published. The university's media students will become actively involved in writing about its future work.

Diverse and fruitful international co-operation activities have contributed to prominent positive changes in the university's life. So far, the university has established relations with 120 foreign universities and other educational institutions from over 30 countries. The number of participants in the exchange programmes has more than doubled, and the destination range has widened significantly. The Institute of International Co-operation and the International Institute of Education Innovations have made important contributions to the university's position internationally.

To ensure the university's strategic development and its positive stance in the Russian and international education services market, it is crucial to create a range of staff skills and teaching materials to boost efficiency and competence.

7 Trends in introducing institutional restructuring

This chapter will try to draw some conclusions that are common to some of the case studies presented in this book.

Institutional restructuring as a means of survival

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) countries faced bankruptcy and a situation of economic crisis. Universities began to initiate institutional reform measures. Reforms were usually introduced as a survival strategy and not to implement policies that would help the education sector grow. Institutions were under government pressure to restructure and had no alternative but to introduce these reforms.

Restructuring to establish comparable structures with universities abroad

Many CIS countries had to align their education system with Western standards. They developed a new higher education structure, which was divided into undergraduate, graduate, postgraduate and doctoral studies. These measures became more useful in the context of the Bologna Process, to which many universities referred.

Restructuring also made it easier to ensure credit transfer systems between CIS universities. The medium of instruction in some CIS universities is still Russian and students aspire to go to prestigious higher education institutions within the Russian Federation. A standardized higher education system promotes regional mobility and facilitates credit transfers.

Introducing new courses

Almost all universities revised their curriculum. Course content now had to bear in mind the shift from a centralized to a market economy. Therefore, many market-friendly courses were introduced ranging from marketing, business management and information systems, to international relationships, languages and law.

Introducing student fees

During the Soviet era education was entirely subsidized. Financial difficulties made it necessary to introduce fees. This created fee-paying and budget students. Budget students are those who receive fellowships from the government, with funding from the ministry of education. Fees have helped universities rely less on government funding and in some cases, the government's contribution accounts for less than 25 per cent of university income.

Initially parents and students were opposed to fees. They had grown accustomed to state subsidies and could not afford to pay fees. Gradually, fees were accepted as a reliable source of revenue and actually led to higher enrolment rates, which eventually meant that there were fewer budget students.

Changes in admissions policies

Once fees were introduced, admissions policies changed. Many universities introduced entrance examinations for students including non-fee applicants. In Belarus for instance, the admissions procedure includes three entrance examinations – in the discipline, in a language (either

Belarusian or Russian) and the University Admission Commission can also make students sit a third examination.

Introducing a credit-based assessment system

Introducing a credit-based assessment system changed the teaching and learning processes and the teachers' workload. Earlier evaluation systems were largely oral. This was an important reform that universities throughout the region have undergone. The credit-based system requires a more objective test-based evaluation system. This makes the evaluation system more credible and comparable with other universities.

Reforms moving away from government controls

Although the government urged reforms, at the same time, this would be at the expense of weakening its controlling grip on higher education. Too much bureaucratic control has had a negative effect on universities, which have always sought to be free and autonomous. The government on the other hand, wanted to control and regulate universities. This weakened as its funding capacity declined. Although most universities now have decision-making power, the government's control on higher education has not disappeared entirely.

Initially, institutions of higher education were reluctant to let go of state funding given the uncertainty. However, the public system proved to be more uncertain than opting for other sources of funding. The institutional restructuring process has redefined the relationship between public authorities and how universities operate. Nonetheless, CIS ministries of education continue to exert more influence over higher education institutions than in other regions.

Generating income

Many universities started industrial companies, which relied on research to produce industrial goods. Some of them relied on foreign donors for funding.

Interacting with foreign universities

Changing the curriculum, reorganizing courses and creating a unified structure has helped universities align themselves with institutions of higher education in other CIS countries and in the Western world. Some universities have started exchange programmes and credit transfer systems. Efforts to develop unified structures and evaluation systems have helped to develop exchange programmes throughout the world.

Creating new management structures

The most important feature of the institutional restructuring process is that all of the universities have created structures to provide better institutional management and decision-making. Decisions on the reorganization of faculties, on new courses and fees are made at the institutional level. Decision-making structures have become more democratic and decentralized.

8 Conclusion

Many CIS countries experienced the same restructuring processes, including a revised curriculum, the introduction of new courses, a credit-based assessment system to evaluate students and a clear distinction between budget and non-budget students. Since restructuring was essential for their survival, universities could not resist it. This is in contrast to other countries, where the response to the restructuring process was strong resistance and violent incidents. Therefore, since the restructuring process started when the system was about to break down, the immediate concern was to revive it. This reduced or eliminated resistance to change.

This study has tried to identify major factors which influenced the restructuring process. There are generally three main causes. Firstly, financial considerations and cost savings are usually the primary reasons, although this was not necessarily the case for CIS countries. Secondly, IIEP studies on the restructuring process in Asia (Varghese, 2005) have indicated that the primary motivation for restructuring was to improve the quality of higher education and to make it more relevant in a context of globalization. Except during the financial crisis of 1999, higher education in Asia did not face drastic cuts in public resource allocation. Thirdly, a close analysis of restructuring processes in CIS countries reveals that their primary focus was to make higher education comparable with the rest of the world. This included changing the curriculum to make it relevant to the needs of a growing market economy. Therefore, the primary purpose for institutional restructuring in higher education institutions within CIS countries was to make the system more responsive and relevant to the requirements of an emerging domestic market economy and to position the universities in comparison with those abroad, especially Western institutions.

Restructuring has successfully mobilized more resources, and reduced the reliance on state funding and management. It has also contributed substantially to increasing enrolment rates and the revival of the higher education system in CIS countries.

References

- Altbach, P.G. 1988. "Management of decline: an international perspective". In: *Higher Education in Europe*, 9(4), 1-19.
- Avetisyan, A. 2005. *Institutional restructuring in higher education: the case of Yerevan State University*. Unpublished project report completed as part of the IIEP research study on "Institutional restructuring in higher education in CIS countries". Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Belarusian State University. 2005. *Institutional restructuring in higher education in the Republic of Belarus: the case of Belarusian State University*. Unpublished project report completed as part of the IIEP research study on "Institutional restructuring in higher education in CIS countries". Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Clark, B. 1998. *Entrepreneurial universities: organizational pathways of transition*. Paris: International Association of Universities.
- Clark, N. 2007. "Education reform in the former Soviet Union". In: *World Education News and Reviews*, 18(6), 1-7.
- Court, D. 1999. *Financing higher education in Africa: Makerere, the quiet revolution*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Herzen State Pedagogical University. 2005. *Institutional restructuring in higher education at Herzen State Pedagogical University*. Unpublished project report completed as part of the IIEP research study on "Institutional restructuring in higher education in CIS countries". Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Isakakov, B. 2005. *Institutional restructuring in higher education: the case of Khazakh National Technical University*. Unpublished project report completed as part of the IIEP research study on "Institutional restructuring in higher education in CIS countries". Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Kiamba, C. 2003. *The experience of privately sponsored studentship and other income-generating activities at the University of Nairobi*. Case study prepared for Regional Training Conference on Improving Tertiary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Things that Work! Accra, 23 to 25 September, 2003.
- Kitaev, I. 2004. "University funding by the central Russian Government: where the ends meet?" In: M. Shattock (Ed.), *Entrepreneurialism and the transformation of Russian universities* (pp. 36-57). Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Knight, J. 2006. *Higher education crossing borders: a guide to the implications of the GATS for cross-border education*. Paris: UNESCO/Commonwealth of Learning.
- Kyrgyz National University. 2005. *Conversion of institutions of higher education in CIS countries: the case of Kyrgyz National University*. Unpublished project report completed as part of the IIEP research study on "Institutional restructuring in higher education in CIS countries". Paris: IIEP-UNESCO, mimeo.
- Martin, M. (Ed). 2005. *Regulation and quality assurance of transnational provision of higher education: comparative synthesis and six case studies*. Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Martin, M.; Stella, A. 2007. *External quality assurance in higher education: making choices*. Fundamentals of Educational Planning. No. 85. Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.

- Peters, M. 2003. "Classical political economy and the role of universities in the new knowledge economy". In: *Globalization, Sciences and Education*, 2(2), 153-167.
- Psacharopoulos, G. 1994. "Returns to investment in education: a global update". In: *World Development*, 22, 325-343.
- Shattock, M. 2004. "Introduction". In: M. Shattock (Ed.), *Entrepreneurialism and the transformation of Russian universities* (pp. 27-36.) Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Slaughter, A.; Leslie, L. 1999. *Academic capitalism: politics, policies and entrepreneurial universities*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Tilak, J.B.G. 1999. "Emerging trends and evolving public policies in India". In: P.G. Altbach (Ed.), *Private Prometheus: private higher education and development in the 21st century* (pp. 113-135). Westport: Greenwood Press.
- Varghese, N.V. 2005. *Institutional restructuring in higher education in Asia: some trends*. Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Varghese, N.V. 2006. "Growth and expansion of private higher education in Africa". In: N.V. Varghese (Ed.), *Growth and expansion of private higher education in Africa* (pp. 27-54). Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
- Varghese, N.V. 2007. *GATS and national regulatory policies in higher education: guidelines for developing countries*. Research Paper Series. Paris: IIEP-UNESCO .
- World Bank. 1986. *Financing education in developing countries: an exploration of policy options*. Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. 2001. *Globalization, growth and poverty: building an inclusive world economy*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. 2002. *Constructing knowledge societies: new challenges for tertiary education*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Other titles on higher education

Institutional restructuring in higher education in Asia: trends and patterns,
by *N.V. Varghese*

The National Accreditation System in Colombia:
experiences from the National Council of Accreditation (CNA),
by *José Revelo Revelo; Carlos Augusto Hernández*

Accreditation in the USA: origins, developments and future prospects,
by *Elaine El-Khawas*

Accreditation in the higher-education system of Hungary:
a case study for international comparison,
by *Tamás Kozma* in collaboration with *Imre Radácsi, Magdolna Rébay, Tamás Híves*

External quality assurance in Indian higher education:
case study of the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC),
by *Antony Stella*

Reforming higher education in the Nordic countries – studies of change in Denmark,
Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden,
by *Ingemar Fägerlind, Görel Strömqvist* (Eds.)

Growth and expansion of private higher education in Africa,
Edited by *N.V. Varghese*

In pursuit of continuing quality in higher education through accreditation:
the Philippine experience,
by *Adriano A. Arcelo*

Private higher education in Georgia,
by *George Sharvashidze*

Private higher education in Kenya,
by *Okwach Abagi, Juliana Nzomo, Wycliffe Otieno*
Edited by *N.V. Varghese*

Entrepreneurialism and the transformation of Russian universities,
by *Michael Shattock* (Ed.), *Evgeni Kniazev, Nikolay Pelikhov, Aljona Sandgren,*
Nikolai Toivonen

Private higher education in Bangladesh (web only),
by *Mahmudul Alam, M. Shamsul Haque, Syed Fahad Siddique*
Edited by *N.V. Varghese*

GATS and higher education: the need for regulatory policies (web only),
by *N.V. Varghese*

Knowledge for the future: research capacity in developing countries (web only),
by *N.V. Varghese, B.C. Sanyal*

IIEP publications and documents

More than 1,200 titles on all aspects of educational planning have been published by the International Institute for Educational Planning. A comprehensive catalogue is available in the following subject categories:

Educational planning and global issues

General studies – global/developmental issues

Administration and management of education

Decentralization – participation – distance education – school mapping – teachers

Economics of education

Costs and financing – employment – international co-operation

Quality of education

Evaluation – innovation – supervision

Different levels of formal education

Primary to higher education

Alternative strategies for education

Lifelong education – non-formal education – disadvantaged groups – gender education

Copies of the Catalogue may be obtained on request from:

IIEP, Publications and Communications Unit

info@iiep.unesco.org

Titles of new publications and abstracts may be consulted
at the following web site: www.iiep.unesco.org

The International Institute for Educational Planning

The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) is an international centre for advanced training and research in the field of educational planning. It was established by UNESCO in 1963 and is financed by UNESCO and by voluntary contributions from Member States. In recent years the following Member States have provided voluntary contributions to the Institute: Australia, Denmark, India, Ireland, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

The Institute's aim is to contribute to the development of education throughout the world, by expanding both knowledge and the supply of competent professionals in the field of educational planning. In this endeavour the Institute co-operates with training and research organizations in Member States. The IIEP Governing Board, which approves the Institute's programme and budget, consists of a maximum of eight elected members and four members designated by the United Nations Organization and certain of its specialized agencies and institutes.

Chairperson:

Raymond E. Wanner (USA)

Senior Adviser on UNESCO issues to the Senior Vice-President for Programs, United Nations Foundation, Washington DC, USA.

Designated Members:

Manuel M. Dayrit

Director, Department of Human Resources for Health, Cluster of Evidence and Information for Policy, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.

Carlos Lopes

Education Director, World Bank, Washington DC, USA.

Jamil Salmi

Education Sector Manager, the World Bank Institute, Washington DC, USA.

Diéry Seck

Director, African Institute for Economic Development and Planning, Dakar, Senegal.

Elected Members:

Aziza Bennani (Morocco)

Ambassador and Permanent Delegate of Morocco to UNESCO.

Nina Yefimovna Borevskaya (Russia)

Chief Researcher and Project Head, Institute of Far Eastern Studies, Moscow.

Birger Fredriksen (Norway)

Consultant on Education Development for the World Bank.

Ricardo Henriques (Brazil)

Special Adviser of the President, National Economic and Social Development Bank.

Takyiwaa Manuh (Ghana)

Director, Institute of African Studies, University of Ghana.

Philippe Méhaut (France)

LEST-CNRS, Aix-en-Provence, France.

Xinsheng Zhang (China)

Vice-Minister of Education, China.

Inquiries about the Institute should be addressed to:

The Office of the Director, International Institute for Educational Planning,
7-9 rue Eugène Delacroix, 75116 Paris, France

The book

The expansion of the market economy has led to several reforms in higher education, changing the way university activities are organized, how services are provided and how institutions are managed. The reforms initiated within the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) have many common elements, including a revised curriculum, new courses, a credit-based assessment system, student evaluation systems, cost recovery measures and the mix of state- and privately-funded students.

Institutional restructuring can be necessary for financial reasons or to improve the quality of education. This paper argues that the restructuring process in the CIS was aimed more at improving the relevance of higher education institutions to compete in an increasingly globalized world. Case studies are provided from universities in Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and the Russian Federation.

The author

N.V. Varghese, Professor and former Head of the Educational Planning Unit at NUEPA (New Delhi), is currently Head of Governance and Management in Education at IIEP. He has published widely in the areas of educational planning, financing and quality. His most recent publications concern the areas of globalization and cross-border higher education, institutional restructuring of higher education and private higher education